

One-Dimensional Variational Ionospheric Retrieval Using Radio Occultation Bending Angles: Part 2 - Validation

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Abstract

Culverwell et al. (2023) described a new one-dimensional variational (1D-Var) retrieval approach for ionospheric GNSS radio occultation (GNSS-RO) measurements. The approach maps a one-dimensional ionospheric electron density profile, modeled with multiple 'Vary-Chap' layers, to bending angle space. This paper improves the computational performance of the the 1D-Var retrieval using an improved background model and validates the approach by comparing with the COSMIC-2 profile retrievals, based on an Abel Transform inversion, and co-located (within 200 km) ionosonde observations using all suitable data from 2020. A three or four layer Vary-Chap in the 1D-Var retrieval shows improved performance compared to COSMIC-2 retrievals in terms of percentage error for the F2 peak parameters (NmF2 and hmF2). Furthermore, skill in retrieval (compared to COSMIC-2 profiles) throughout the bottomside (~90 km to 300 km) has been demonstrated. With a single Vary-Chap layer the performance is similar, but this improves by approximately 40% when using four-layers.

1 **One-Dimensional Variational Ionospheric Retrieval**
2 **Using Radio Occultation Bending Angles: Part 2 -**
3 **Validation**

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8 **Key Points:**

- 9
- 10 • Improved computational performance of the 1D-Var bending angle retrieval is demon-
11 strated with a better background model
 - 12 • Extensive validation of the 1D-Var retrieval approach compared to ionosondes and
13 COSMIC-2 retrievals has been undertaken
 - 14 • The 1D-Var retrieval, using four-layers, is shown to have an 40% reduction in root
mean square error compared to COSMIC-2 retrievals

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Abstract

Culverwell et al. (2023) described a new one-dimensional variational (1D-Var) retrieval approach for ionospheric GNSS radio occultation (GNSS-RO) measurements. The approach maps a one-dimensional ionospheric electron density profile, modeled with multiple “Vary-Chap” layers, to bending angle space. This paper improves the computational performance of the the 1D-Var retrieval using an improved background model and validates the approach by comparing with the COSMIC-2 profile retrievals, based on an Abel Transform inversion, and co-located (within 200 km) ionosonde observations using all suitable data from 2020. A three or four layer Vary-Chap in the 1D-Var retrieval shows improved performance compared to COSMIC-2 retrievals in terms of percentage error for the F2 peak parameters (NmF2 and hmF2). Furthermore, skill in retrieval (compared to COSMIC-2 profiles) throughout the bottomside (~90 km to 300 km) has been demonstrated. With a single Vary-Chap layer the performance is similar, but this improves by approximately 40% when using four-layers.

Plain Language Summary

Culverwell et al. (2023) presented a new way of estimating ionospheric electron density using the amount of bending experienced by GNSS signals in the upper atmosphere. In this paper, as well as providing extensive validation of the technique, the computational performance is improved by using better initial conditions. The validation is done by comparing the newly described approach with that used by the COSMIC-2 satellite constellation using additional data from ground-based sensors known as ionosondes. The newly described technique is found to provide improvements of approximately 40% compared to a complementary approach using by COSMIC-2.

1 Introduction

Culverwell et al. (2023) described a one-dimensional variational (1D-Var) ionospheric retrieval that can be applied to the Metop-SG measurement geometry, which will truncate the ionospheric GNSS-RO measurements around 600 km above the surface. This new, general approach for the ionospheric GNSS-RO retrieval problem, is valid for both the truncated and standard GNSS-RO measurement geometry. A new 1D ionospheric bending angle forward operator was described that computes the L2-L1 bending angle differences as a function of impact parameter, assuming that the ionospheric electron density can be modeled with multiple Vary-Chap layers. This approach is close to how GNSS-RO data is used in neutral atmosphere applications, such as operational Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) models (Healy & Thépaut, 2006).

Furthermore Culverwell et al. (2023) showed that gradient based minimisation techniques can be successfully applied to this bending angle retrieval problem, and the non-linearity of the Vary-Chap functions was demonstrated to not be problematic. The 1D-Var filters out measurement noise and the retrieved electron density solutions are smooth in comparison with the more traditional Abel transform retrieval. The use of bending angles may have implications for how GNSS-RO data is used in ionospheric data assimilation (DA) systems. Until now, slant TEC values have usually been assimilated in ionospheric DA systems, but these require a correction for the Differential Code Biases (DCB). Since the DCB is usually assumed to be constant during the occultation, it will not impact the bending angle values derived from the raw phase delays, and so it is not required to assimilate these measurements.

The purpose of this paper is to fully validate the 1D-Var ionospheric retrieval using COSMIC-2 bending angles. The 1D-Var and COSMIC-2 retrievals, based on the Abel Transform inversion as implemented by University Corporation for Atmospheric Research (UCAR), hereafter known simply as “COSMIC-2 retrievals”, are compared to co-located

Table 1. Background and analysis parameters for a one-layer Vary-Chap with different background conditions.

	Parameters				Number of iterations
	$NmF2$	$hmF2$	$H_{0,F2}$	k_{F2}	
Background	2.00×10^{12}	300	50.0	0.15	9
Analysis	5.66×10^{11}	244	50.1	0.14	
Background	7.00×10^{11}	300	50.0	0.15	11
Analysis	5.66×10^{11}	244	50.1	0.14	
Background	7.00×10^{11}	250	50.0	0.15	6
Analysis	5.66×10^{11}	244	49.9	0.14	
Background	2.00×10^{11}	300	50.0	0.15	14
Analysis	5.66×10^{11}	244	50.1	0.14	

64 (within 200 km) ionosonde observations using all suitable data from 2020, which involves
65 a statistical comparison of over 10,000 ionospheric profiles.

66 2 COSMIC-2

67 The FORMOSAT-7/COSMIC-2 constellation is a constellation of six identical satel-
68 lites in a low inclination orbit at a nominal altitude of 520-550 km with an inclination
69 of 24° (Anthes & Schreiner, 2019). It follows the successful COSMIC-1 program, which
70 launched in April 2006 (Ho et al., 2020). The COSMIC-2 constellation’s primary aim
71 is to observe the atmosphere from a low latitude orbit using RO, supporting operational
72 global weather prediction, tropical weather and climate research, space weather forecast-
73 ing, and ionospheric research.

74 Whilst COSMIC-2 do not provide L1 and L2 bending angles, here we use the deriva-
75 tive of slantwise TEC S , with respect to the impact parameter a , $\partial S/\partial a$. Culverwell et
76 al. (2023) showed that, to a good approximation, this is proportional to the difference
77 between the L2 and L1 bending angles, plus an electron density term at the LEO satel-
78 lite. Here we fit to bending angles with impact heights (impact parameter - radius of cur-
79 vature) between 100 and 500 km. In contrast COSMIC-2 retrievals use data from 0 up
80 to a height of ~ 700 km at a vertical resolution of 1 Hz (≈ 2 to 3 km).

81 3 Background Model

82 In this implementation of a 1D-Var system the *a priori* (background) values are
83 effectively used as a first guess to start the minimisation process rather than a strong
84 constraint on the final 1D-Var solution. For example, using COSMIC-1 measurements
85 provided by the Institut D’Estudis Espacials de Catalunya (IEEC) in Spain using a one-
86 layer Vary-Chap and a variety of background parameters gives the analysis results and
87 the number of iterations until convergence shown in Table 1.

88 What is clear from Table 1 is that varying the background model parameters has
89 almost no impact on the final analysis (the only difference at all is in the third block with
90 an $H_{0,F2}$ value of 49.9 where in all other instances it is 50.1). The main difference be-
91 tween varying the parameters is the impact on the number of iterations required to ar-
92 rive at the analysis results. This varies from 14 iterations to 6. This suggests that an im-

93 proved background guess may reduce the number of iterations required for the model
 94 to converge.

95 Noting this increased performance when using a more accurate background guess,
 96 rather than a fixed set of values, a simple model for these parameters is defined below.
 97 Whilst a more complicated background model could be used, this increases the compu-
 98 tational cost and run times. Since the *a priori* values are not a strong constraint in this
 99 system, these cost increases provide no advantages.

100 This peak parameter (NmF2, NmF1, NmE, hmF2, hmF1 and hmE) model is based
 101 on Nava et al. (2008); Angling et al. (2018).

102 3.1 NmE

103 The peak density of the ionospheric E-region, NmE , is well modelled by a simple
 104 function based on the a seasonal relationship with F10.7 and solar zenith angle χ (Leitinger
 105 & Kirchengast, 1997; Nava et al., 2008):

$$106 \quad NmE = \frac{a_e}{80.616} \sqrt{F_{10.7}} \cos^{0.6}(\chi_{eff}), \quad (1)$$

107 where a_e is a seasonal term given by (Nava et al., 2008)

$$108 \quad a_e = (1.112 - 0.019s_p)^2, \quad (2)$$

$$109 \quad s_p = s \cdot \tanh(0.15\phi), \quad (3)$$

110 where ϕ is latitude in radians, $s = -1$ if the month is January, February, November or
 111 December, $s = 0$ if March, April, September or October and $s = 1$ if May, June, July
 112 or August. Finally, χ_{eff} is the effective solar zenith angle given by

$$113 \quad \chi_{eff} = \frac{\chi + [90 - 0.24 \exp(20 - 0.2\chi)] \cdot \exp(12(\chi - \chi_0))}{1 + \exp(12(\chi - \chi_0))}, \quad (4)$$

114 where χ_0 is the zenith angle at night-day transition, 86.23° as given in ITU-R P.2297-
 115 1 (2019).

116 3.2 hmE

117 Across a range of models including NeQuick and the IRI hmE , the height of the
 118 E-region peak density, is usually set to a fixed height. In this model

$$119 \quad hmE = 110 \text{ km}, \quad (5)$$

120 as per the updated NeQuick model from Angling et al. (2018).

121 3.3 NmF2

122 NmF2, the peak density of the F2-layer, is dependent on a number of factors in-
 123 cluding geographical longitude, latitude, time, season/day of year and solar activity. A
 124 number of approaches can be used to described solar activity, for this simple model the
 125 sunspot number (SSN) is used. The NeQuick (Nava et al., 2008) and the Ionospheric
 126 Reference Model (IRI; e.g. (Bilitza & Reinisch, 2008)) use the Committee Consultative
 127 for Ionospheric Radiowave propagation (CCIR) files to compute NmF2 and M(3000)F2
 128 (the ratio of the maximum usable frequency at a distance of 3000 km to the F2 layer crit-
 129 ical frequency, foF2). The CCIR maps for the F2 parameter consist of 988 coefficients
 130 for each month. CCIR provides two sets of coefficients, one for low sunspot numbers and
 131 one for high (Haralambous et al., 2021). The coefficients for intermediate levels of so-
 132 lar activity are determined by linear interpolation (European Commission, 2016).

133 As per (Nava et al. (2008); European Commission (2016) Equations 61–68 and 77)
 134 the CCIR coefficients are interpolated for the current date and solar activity levels and
 135 then vectors of coefficients for Legendre polynomials are calculated. The NmF2 (electrons/m³)
 136 is specified in terms of foF2 (Hz):

$$137 \quad NmF2 = 0.0124foF2^2, \quad (6)$$

138 where foF2 itself is defined as the sum of nine intermediate terms:

$$139 \quad foF2 = \sum_{n=1}^9 foF2_n, \quad (7)$$

140 where

$$141 \quad foF2_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{12} f_k m_k, \quad (8)$$

142 and

$$143 \quad foF2_n = \cos^{n-1}(\text{lat}) \sum_{k=1}^{q_n} [f_{k_n+2k-1} \cos((n-1)\text{lon}) + \\ f_{k_n+2k} \sin((n-1)\text{lon})] m_k \quad (9)$$

144 for $n = 2, \dots, 9$ where

$$145 \quad q_n = \{12, 12, 9, 5, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1\}, \quad n = 1, \dots, 9 \quad (10)$$

$$146 \quad k_n = \{-12, 12, 36, 54, 64, 68, 70, 72, 74\}, \quad n = 1, \dots, 9. \quad (11)$$

147 m_k are the “modip” coefficients (fully described in European Commission (2016) equa-
 148 tions 6-16), lon and lat are the longitude and latitude of interest and the f_j are the 76
 149 CCIR coefficients for the Legendre calculation (European Commission, 2016; Equations
 150 40-50; note that f is written as $cf2$ in those equations).

151 3.4 hmF2

152 The calculation of the height of the maximum F2 density, hmF2, is based on the
 153 NmF2, NmE and the M(3000)F2 (European Commission, 2016; Equations 69–76). The
 154 M(3000)F2 is calculated similarly to NmF2 from Section 3.3 as the sum of seven inter-
 155 mediate terms:

$$156 \quad M(3000)F2 = \sum_{n=1}^7 M(3000)F2_n, \quad (12)$$

157 where

$$158 \quad M(3000)F2_1 = \sum_{k=1}^7 u_k m_k, \quad (13)$$

159 and

$$160 \quad M(3000)F2_n = \cos^{n-1}(\text{lat}) \sum_{k=1}^{r_n} [u_{h_n+2k-1} \cos((n-1)\text{lon}) + \\ u_{h_n+2k} \sin((n-1)\text{lon})] m_k \quad (14)$$

161 where

$$162 \quad r_n = \{8, 6, 3, 2, 1, 1\} \quad \text{and} \quad (15)$$

$$163 \quad h_n = \{7, 23, 35, 41, 45, 47\}, \quad (16)$$

164 for $n = 2, \dots, 7$. u_j are the interpolated CCIR coefficients (European Commission, 2016;
 165 Equations 40–51; note that u is written as $cm3$ in those equations).

166 Then the $hmF2$ is defined as (Nava et al., 2008)

$$167 \quad hmF2 = \frac{1490M}{M + \Delta M} \sqrt{\frac{0.0196M^2 + 1}{1.2967M^2 - 1}} - 176 \quad (17)$$

168 where $M = M(3000)F2$ and

$$169 \quad \Delta M = \frac{0.253}{\rho - 1.215} - 0.012, \quad (18)$$

$$170 \quad \rho = N \cdot \frac{\exp(20(N - 1.75)) + 1.75}{\exp(20(N - 1.75)) + 1}, \quad (19)$$

$$171 \quad N = \sqrt{\frac{NmF2}{NmE}}. \quad (20)$$

172 3.5 NmF1

173 The maximum density of the F1-layer, $NmF1$, is primarily defined in this model
 174 as in NeQuick (Nava et al., 2008), in terms of the critical density of the E-Region. Specif-
 175 ically

$$176 \quad NmF1 = 1.96NmE. \quad (21)$$

177 3.6 hmF1

178 The height of the peak density of the F1-layer, $hmF1$, is defined here simply as the
 179 average of the height of peak density of the E and F2 layer:

$$180 \quad hmF1 = \frac{hmF2 + hmE}{2} = \frac{hmF2 + 110}{2}. \quad (22)$$

181 3.7 Using the New Background Model

182 Table 1 demonstrated the impact of the background model values on the number
 183 of iterations needed to converge to a solution with the 1D-Var. Rather than using a fixed
 184 set of values for the initial guesses for the Vary-Chap layers but instead using values from
 185 the model described in the previous sections has a major impact on the iteration rate
 186 and the total number of successful convergences (a successful convergence is defined as
 187 a convergence which takes less than 50 iterations), Table 2.

188 The four-layer Vary-Chap model in Table 2 is an E-, F1-, F2- and topside-layer model.
 189 The D-region is excluded as it has very little impact on the overall results (see Culverwell
 190 et al. (2023)). It can be seen from Table 2 that using the new background model not only
 191 reduces the average number of iterations required for convergence in each case but also
 192 improves the overall percentage of observations which do converge. The average reduc-
 193 tion in the number of observations is 5 iterations and the increased percentage of obser-
 194 vation convergence means that all test versions of the model have at least a 73.4% con-
 195 vergence rate (improved from 58.7%).

196 4 Statistical Performance of the 1D-Var Retrieval

197 To undertake a rigorous statistical analysis of the 1D-Var retrieval technique two
 198 things are needed:

Table 2. Percentage of observations which converge within 50 iterations and statistics of the rate of convergence for up to four Vary-Chap layers using the first-guess background conditions described in Table 1 of Culverwell et al. (2023) and the background model described here.

	Background using old parameter conditions		Background using new parameter model	
	Observations which converged	Mean Iterations	Observations which converged	Mean Iterations
1 layer	98.6%	16	99.3%	11
2 layers	85.5%	34	92.7%	26
3 layers	66.7%	28	80.2%	24
4 layers	58.7%	31	73.4%	28

1. a comparison to independent observations,
2. sufficient retrievals to reduce uncertainty in the analysis.

4.1 Radio Occultation Observations

The current most abundant, and freely available, source of recent RO observations is from the COSMIC-2 satellites (see Section 2). To perform a rigorous statistical analysis of the 1D-Var retrieval technique all available Level 1B (TEC observations) and Level 2 (ionospheric profiles) products from 2020 have been used (UCAR, 2019). COSMIC-2 ionospheric retrievals use the calibrated TEC data derived from the L1 and L2 phase differences, which is then calibrated using the method described in CDAAC (Strauss et al., 2020).

In total there are 1,838,920 Level 1B occultations (each containing several hundred TEC observations) and an associated 966,358 Level 2 derived ionospheric profiles available to download in 2020.

4.2 Independent Observations

By stepping through a range of HF frequencies transmitted vertically upwards and measuring the return echoes ionosondes can image the vertical profile of the ionosphere up to the peak density. These observations are both widely assimilated by ionospheric models and also commonly used as reference observations (often incorrectly called ‘truth’) for comparative studies e.g. (Feltens et al., 2011; Elvidge et al., 2014; Scherliess et al., 2011).

Lin et al. (2020) and Cherniak et al. (2021) have previously validated the COSMIC-2 profiles, in terms of peak density/height, by comparison to ionosonde profiles at eight locations across one month in late 2019 and two months in early 2020 respectively. The Lin et al. (2020) study resulted in the comparison of 135 RO profiles and the Cherniak et al. (2021) study used ~ 2200 profiles.

In this work every ionosonde observation (profiles) from within 200 km of the location of an occultation in 2020 has been used to validate both the COSMIC-2 profile reconstruction as well as the 1D-Var retrieval. Usually ionosonde profiles are ‘autoscaled’ to get the true height information from the observations, but this can, and does, give rise to ‘autoscaling errors’. Ionogram autoscaling is the process of automatically detecting the traces on a graph of time-of-flight against transmitted frequency which can then be used to infer the electron densities. The most commonly used autoscaling software is the

Table 3. Number of COSMIC-2 profiles analysed

Total occultations	1,838,920	100.0%
Number which have associated electron density profiles	966,358	52.5%
Number which have nearby ionosonde observations	10,935	0.59%
Number which do not contain obvious autoscaling errors	10,612	0.58%

231 Automatic Real-Time Ionogram Scaler with True height (ARTIST) (Galkin et al., 2008)
 232 which uses a hyperbolic trace fitting method. The best way to overcome these autoscal-
 233 ing errors is to manually scale the ionograms (as was done in Lin et al. (2020)), however
 234 that is a time consuming process. Another way to address the problem is by looking at
 235 the confidence scores that autoscaling software, such as ARITST, uses to assess the suc-
 236 cess of the inversion. Only profiles with maximum confidence (100) have been used. That
 237 results in 10,935 profiles used in this study.

238 However, even profiles with the maximum confidence score can still contain errors
 239 (Themens et al., 2022). To address this issue, each ionosonde profile has been examined
 240 and removed from the analysis if they contain obvious errors. Overall this results in 10,612
 241 profiles which are used in the analysis, far more than used in previous studies. The num-
 242 ber of observations are summarized in Table 3.

243 4.3 Analysis Results

244 Initial analysis of the 1D-Var retrieval, in a similar approach to (Lin et al., 2020),
 245 is to look at the performance of the F2 peak in terms of density and altitude compared
 246 to the ionosondes. These results can then be compared to the COSMIC-2 electron den-
 247 sity profiles. However, before looking at the statistical performance of the two approaches,
 248 some quality control (QC) of the peak parameters is required.

249 An easy first approximation to find the F2 peak parameters is to take the maxi-
 250 mum density of the electron density profile and associated altitude. Figures 1 and 2 show
 251 the resulting probability density plots for the maximum density and the associated al-
 252 titudes respectively. By comparing the COSMIC-2 height of maximums to the proba-
 253 bility distribution function of hmF2's using data from the Chilton, UK ionosonde be-
 254 tween 2000 and 2019 (Figure 2) it is clear that the main bulk of the distributions agree
 255 closely. However the second and third peaks centred at 100 km and just greater than 0
 256 in the COSMIC-2 data are likely not actually hmF2 values. These likely included both
 257 observations of sporadic-E and other errors in the COSMIC-2 profiles (e.g. see exam-
 258 ples in Figure 3). In this analysis hmF2 values are defined to be between 200 km and
 259 500 km; if a value is outside of this range it is excluded from the analysis.

260 4.4 Statistical Performance

261 To provide a statistical comparison between the F2 peak parameters the relative
 262 percentage error ($\Delta X(\%) = 100(X - X_{ionosonde})/X_{ionosonde}$) of the specification of
 263 both NmF2 and hmF2 between these ionosonde observations with both the 1D-Var re-
 264 trieval with up to four-layers and COSMIC-2 retrieval is shown in Table 4.

265 From these results it is clear that the 1D-Var retrieval outperforms COSMIC-2 when
 266 using three or four layers. There is a 7% relative error in the COSMIC-2 retrieval of NmF2
 267 (which is consistent with the results of Cherniak et al. (2021)) compared with -5.3% and
 268 -4.2% when using 1D-Var with three and four layers respectively. However, when only
 269 using one-layer the 1D-Var has a -14.8% error in the retrieval of the parameter. For hmF2
 270 the COSMIC-2 error is 2.6% and all versions of the 1D-Var retrieval result in a smaller

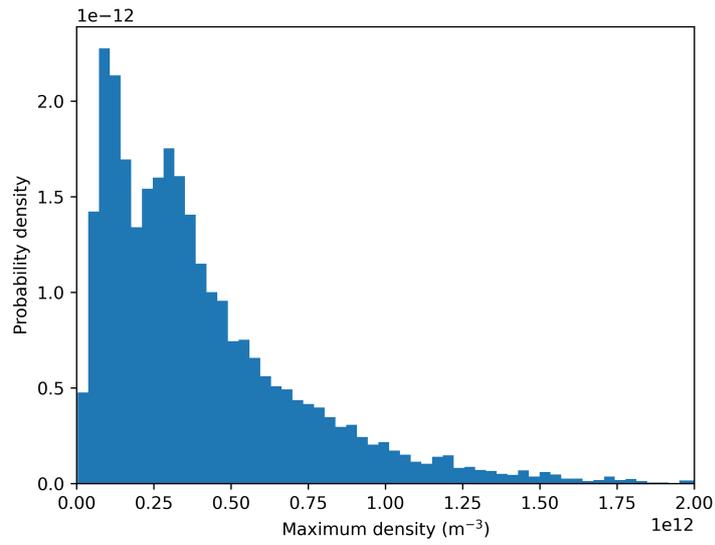


Figure 1. Histogram of COSMIC-2 maximum densities.

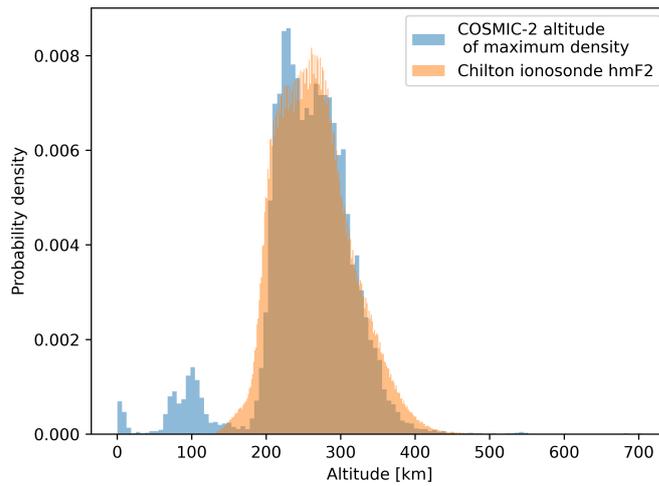


Figure 2. Probability distribution function of COSMIC-2 maximum densities overlaid with hmF2 data from Chilton, UK ionosonde using data from 2000 to 2019.

Table 4. Statistical performance of retrieving NmF2 and hmF2 from the 1D-Var compared with COSMIC-2 relative to ionosondes

	COSMIC-2	1D-Var			
		1 Layer	2 Layers	3 Layers	4 Layers
NmF2	7.0%	-14.8%	-10.6%	-5.3%	-4.2%
hmF2	2.6%	1.3%	0.7%	-0.1%	-0.1%

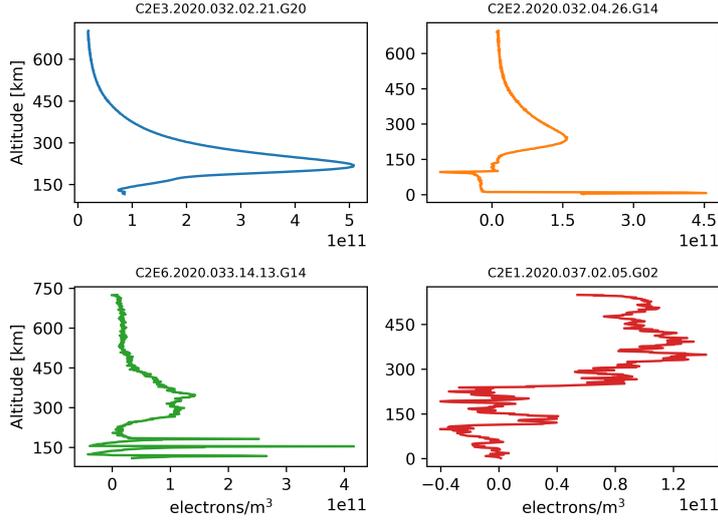


Figure 3. Sample of COSMIC-2 electron density profiles, showing occasional sporadic E-layers and spurious results, COSMIC-2 filenames are above each subplot.

271 error decreasing from 1.3% to just -0.1%. However it should be noted that errors in hmF2
 272 specification from autoscaled ionosonde observations can be large ($\sim \pm 10\%$) and this
 273 should be kept in mind when comparing the parameters.

274 A more detailed view of how the number of layers improves the F2 specification
 275 can be seen by looking at probability density functions of the error in NmF2 specifica-
 276 tion. Figure 4a shows the probability density function for COSMIC-2 and a single F2
 277 layer, overall the distributions are similar, albeit with a slight negative bias in the 1D-
 278 Var retrieval. Moving around in Figure 4 the 1D-Var retrieval has more layers added to
 279 the solution, from one to four. With increasing layers the bias and standard deviation
 280 is reduced, with overall the four layers in Figure 4d performing the best, with a signif-
 281 icantly reduced standard deviation compared to the COSMIC-2 retrieval.

282 4.5 Bottomside Profile

283 Whilst the F2-peak is an important parameter and a good indicator of how well
 284 the 1D-Var retrieval is working, one reason for using the Vary-Chap layers is to recon-
 285 struct the full ionospheric profile. To assess the bottomside (the altitudes region below
 286 that of the peak ionospheric density) performance all of the ionospheric profiles (from
 287 the ionosonde, COSMIC-2 and the 1D-Var) are interpolated onto the same altitude grid,
 288 at 1 km resolution, and the root mean square error (RMSE) with respect to the ionosonde
 289 at each altitude is then calculated. The resulting RMSE altitude profile is shown in Fig-
 290 ure 5.

291 This shows that the 1D-Var retrieval with one-layer (F2) performs very similarly
 292 to the COSMIC-2 profiles, and above 225 km there is no statistically significant differ-
 293 ences in the results, however below 200 km the COSMIC-2 retrieval is clearly superior.
 294 A two-layer model (F2+F1) shows an improvement over COSMIC-2 above 200 km, which
 295 is consistent with the fact of adding a lower-altitude layer. The four-layer (F2+F1+E+Topside)
 296 1D-Var retrieval shows an excellent performance throughout the altitude range, with an
 297 average improvement over COSMIC-2 by approximately 40%. Only above ~ 280 km do
 298 the COSMIC-2 results show comparable/improved performance relative to the four-layer

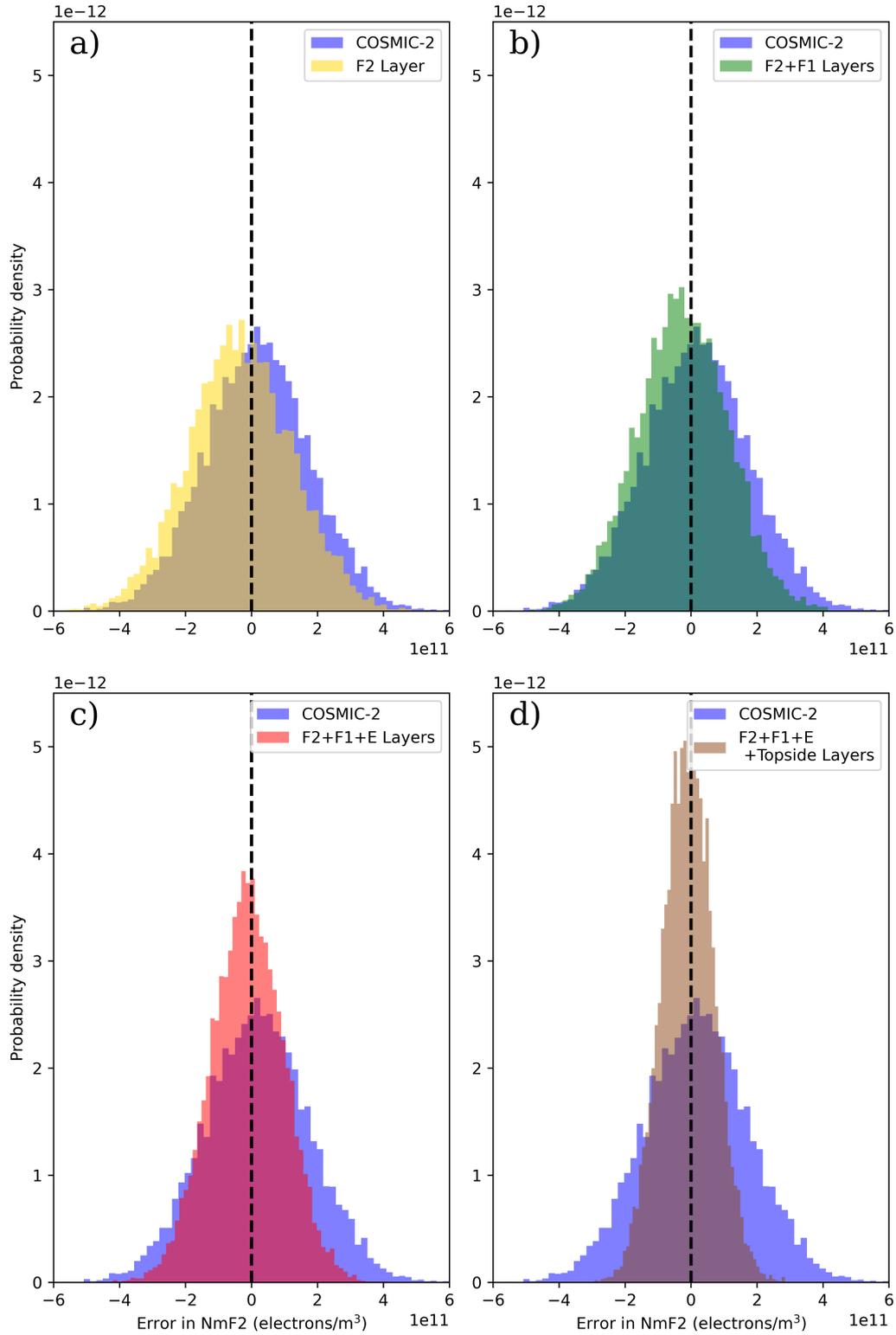


Figure 4. Panels show comparisons of probability density functions of the error in NmF2 from COSMIC-2 compared to the 1D-Var solution with (a) an F2 Layer, (b) F2+F1 layers, (c) F2+F1+E layers and (d) F2+F1+E+Topside layers. Vertical dashed line is marked at 0.

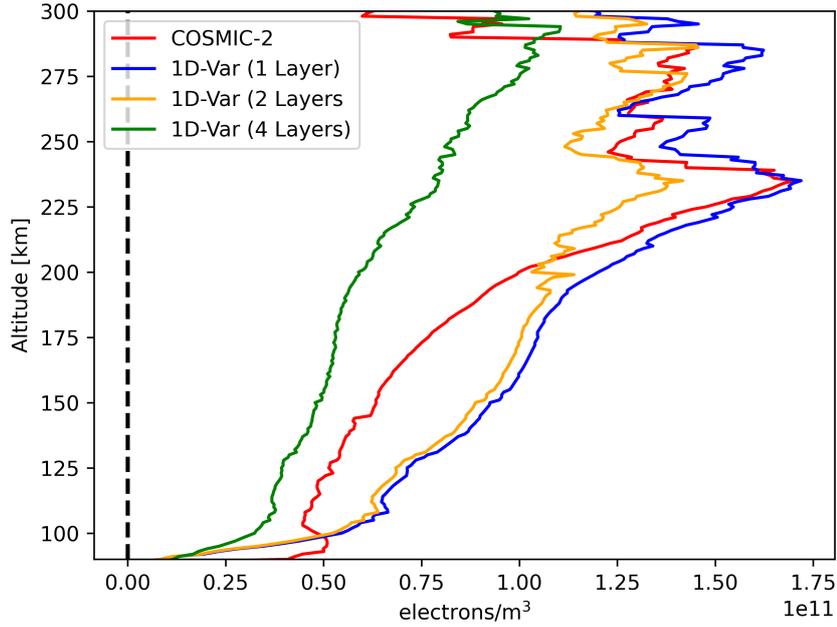


Figure 5. Root mean square error (RMSE) altitude profiles for COSMIC-2 (red) and the 1D-Var retrieval with only 1 Layer (F2; blue), 2 Layers (F2+F1; orange) and 4 Layers (F2+F1+E+Topside; green) compared to ionosonde observations.

299 model, although the number of data points at these altitudes is relatively small and the
 300 results are not statistically distinguishable.

301 5 Discussion and Conclusions

302 The statistical performance of the 1D-Var retrieval technique has been thoroughly
 303 evaluated in the current work, comparing it to independent observations and leverag-
 304 ing a substantial set of retrievals to reduce uncertainty in the analysis. The method was
 305 applied to the Level 1B and Level 2 data obtained from COSMIC-2 satellites and val-
 306 idated using ionosonde observations, constituting a rigorous and expansive analytical pro-
 307 cess.

308 From the analysis, it was clear that the 1D-Var retrieval technique demonstrates
 309 a robust performance, outperforming COSMIC-2 retrievals, particularly when employ-
 310 ing three or four layers. The relative percentage errors in the specification of both NmF2
 311 and hmF2 were found to be lower for the 1D-Var retrieval. This demonstrates the sig-
 312 nificant potential of the 1D-Var technique in the field of ionospheric profile reconstruc-
 313 tion. However, it's worth noting that the 1D-Var retrieval's performance was significantly
 314 lower when only one layer was used, indicating the importance of multi-layer modeling
 315 for improved accuracy. This is an important finding and suggests that future work should
 316 focus on refining and utilizing multi-layer models to improve the retrieval of ionospheric
 317 parameters.

318 Furthermore, the comprehensive analysis of the full ionospheric profiles showed that
 319 the four-layer 1D-Var retrieval exhibited excellent performance throughout the altitude
 320 range. Notably, there was an average improvement over COSMIC-2 by approximately

321 40%, showcasing the promising potential of this technique. Although the COSMIC-2 re-
 322 sults showed comparable performance to the four-layer model above 280 km, the num-
 323 ber of data points at these altitudes was relatively small, and the results weren't statis-
 324 tically distinguishable. This suggests that further research should be dedicated to im-
 325 proving the modeling and retrieval at these higher altitudes.

326 In conclusion, the 1D-Var retrieval technique, particularly when using three or four
 327 layers, offers a significant advancement in ionospheric profile reconstruction. While there
 328 are still areas for improvement, particularly in the retrieval at higher altitudes, the find-
 329 ings of this work provide a strong foundation for further research in this field.

330 6 Open Research

331 COSMIC-1 data is available from <https://data.cosmic.ucar.edu/gnss-ro/cosmic1/repro2013/>.
 332 The processed files from the IEEC may be requested from Dr Hernández-Pajares. COSMIC-
 333 2 data is available from <https://data.cosmic.ucar.edu/gnss-ro/cosmic2/nrt/> and the ionosonde
 334 observations were retrieved from The National Centers for Environmental Information
 335 (NCEI) <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/stp/iono/ionogram.html>.

336 The MODIP and CCIR files required to reconstruct the *a priori* model described
 337 in this work are available from the International Telecommunications Union ([https://www.itu.int/md/R07-
 338 WP3L-C-0094/en](https://www.itu.int/md/R07-WP3L-C-0094/en)) or by contacting Bruno Nava ([https://t-ict4d.ictp.it/nequick2/source-
 339 code](https://t-ict4d.ictp.it/nequick2/source-code)).

340 The background model described in this paper is coded in Python 3.x, as is the 1DVar
 341 retrieval code that uses it. An officially supported Fortran95 implementation of the lat-
 342 ter has been part of the Radio Occultation Processing Package (ROPP) since version 11.0
 343 (released January 2022). ROPP is maintained, developed and supported by EUMET-
 344 SAT, through the Radio Occultation Meteorology Satellite Applications Facility (ROM
 345 SAF), and freely available to download from its website (ROM SAF, 2023).

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